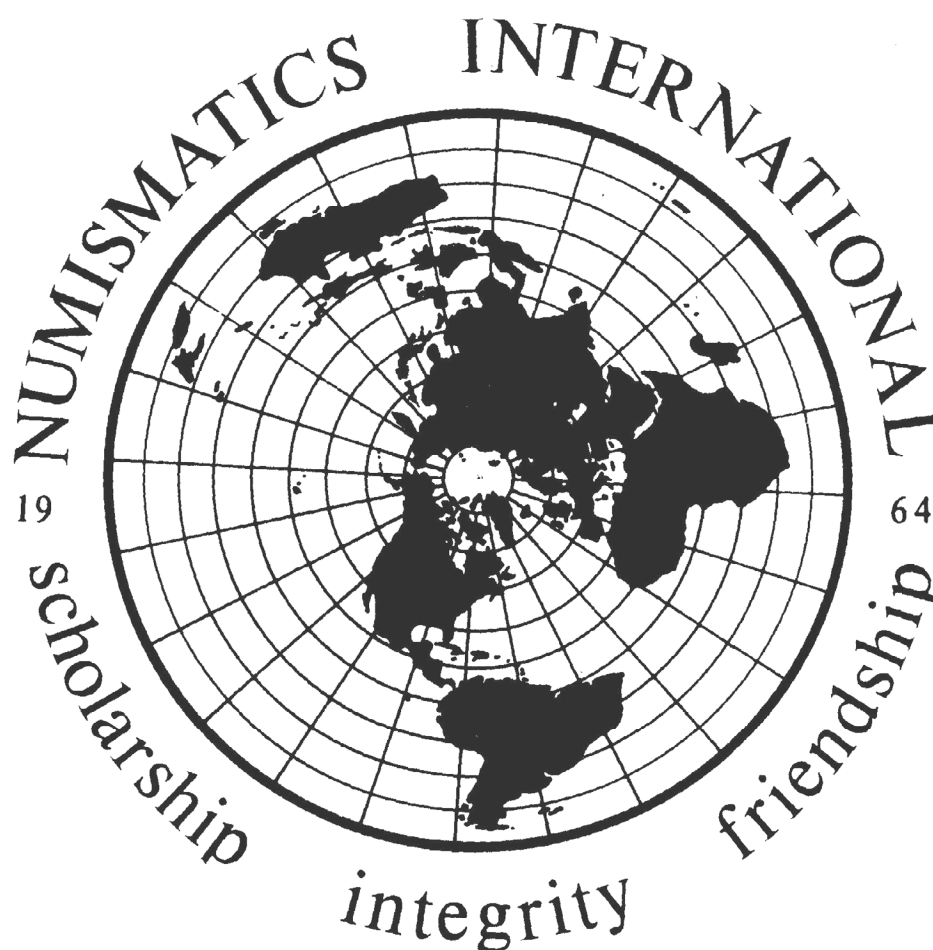


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Membership Report

The following persons have applied for membership. Unless objections in writing are received by October 1, 2007, the memberships are effective that day.

2695-MT	Duane P. Reeves (Coins of Japan)
2696-MT	John Elsen, Jean Elsen & ses Fils s.a., Avenue de Tervueren 65, B-1040 Brussels, Belgium. (Numismatic dealer)
2697-MT	Masashi Kishi
2698-MT	Mark A. Cook, PhD, 172 Clarkson Executive Park, St. Louis, MO 63011 (World coins of crown size)
2699-MT	John A. Ross (Mexican Revolution, Spanish Civil War)

Donations Report

Hideo Futahashi, \$10.00, General Fund
Donald Schott, \$10.00, General Fund
Bill Mullan, \$50.00, General Fund



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An Historical Survey of the Money in Madagascar (1600-1900)

Paul Baker NI #2615 and Hilmar J. Herzberg

As early as the 17th century, the first foreign silver coins found their way to Madagascar. These coins were mostly of Latin-American origin, for example, Mexican 8 Reales and Bolivian 1 Pesos. For that reason the local population called them "*vola dispaine*," Madagascan for "money of the Spaniards." Coins came not only with the sailing ships of all seafaring nations, but also with pirates, who established settlements and hideaways on the east coast of Madagascar. At that time Madagascar had no currency of its own, and trade between the different tribes did not really exist because of constant civil wars between them.

The local populations on the coastline first used the coins after having exchanged spices, slaves and fresh food for them. Initially, they would produce silver jewelry from the coins, but soon they realized their more practical aspects. They realized that the large silver coins were easy to transport; they were not perishable (like rice or livestock), and due to their consistent size and weight the coins could easily be used as a basic unit for any transaction. A sailing crew, for example, reported that in the coastline region in 1698, a cow cost fifteen Spanish coins of 8 Reales, or that same number of any of the other large silver coins. Later the French 5 Franc coins became another of those silver coins to be used widely in trade. For such a silver coin, a jeweler in present-day Madagascar will pay about 20,000 Ariary. That would be 300,000 Ariary for 15 such coins, and these days that amount of money is also enough to buy a cow.

The people using these coins in Madagascar were illiterate; the legends on the coins, even just as letters and numbers, were totally meaningless to them. Madagascan names were given to the different general types, names generally based upon certain characteristics of the coins. Here are a few examples.

Tokazo means "group of trees" and refers to the trees on the Bolivian Peso (8 Soles) types of 1832 to 1863.

Ampango means "fern" and is apparently a reference to the laurel leaves in the emperor's hair on the Austrian Thalers of the earlier 19th century. Laurel was not known in Madagascar; it seems this name just relates to the type of leaves that the people thought the leaves were like.

Ngita means "curly (Negro) hair" and refers to the hair of Charles III on the Spanish 8 Reales types of 1772 to 1788.

The phrase "*tanama soandro*" means "sunbeams" and refers to the rays on the Mexican 8 Reales types of 1823 to 1897.

Beloaka and *helatra* mean "deep crack, gap" and "lightning" respectively, these words were used as names for particular foreign silver coins, but it is not known which.

Around 1800 the first Italian 5 Lira coins and French 5 Franc coins appeared in the area. These were called "*vola frantsa*," meaning "French money." Another name for

these coins was "ariary," which was from the Arabic phrase "*al rial*," meaning "the rial," being from the European word "real."

With use of the "vola frantsa" coins well established, each different type was also given a specific Madagascan name based on a particular feature of its design. Here are some examples:

Tombontsisina means "letters on edge" and refers to coins of the size of French 5 Francs of the Latin Monetary Union (e.g., Switzerland, France, Belgium, Italy) which all had lettered edges.

Malamakel means "well-worn, used," referring to the French 5 Francs of Napoleon I, which, by this time, were apparently to be found ordinarily in a well-worn state.

Behatoka means "strong neck" and refers to the portraits of Louis XVIII and Charles X on French 5 Francs.

Keliandrina means "flat forehead" and the word *mandrihavia* means "sleeping on left side." These both refer to the French 5 Francs of Louis Philippe I and relate to features of the portraits on the coins.

The phrase *tranom pitaratra* means "glasshouse" and refers to the 5 Lira silver coins of Vittorio Emanuele II, issues from Italy and from Sardinia. This name relates to the divided coat of arms on these coins and how it looks a little like a window.

Vola madio means "real money" and refers to the French 5 Francs of Napoleon III, KM #773.x, the type of 1852. This name reflects the fact that coins of this general type were the ones most often found, at the time, in a complete and uncut state.

Ampongabe means "big drum" and refers to the French 5 Francs of Napoleon III, (KM #782.x and KM #799.x). The small central circle on the coat of arms on these coins resembles a large type of drum to be found in Madagascar. The ampongabe is a type of drum that is often played with two hands while suspended from the player's neck.

Volavavy means "money with lady" and refers to the French 5 Francs of the Cérés type (KM #761.x, KM #818.x and KM #819), which features a female portrait, that of Cérés.

But the best-known French coins were those of the Hercules type 5 Francs, designed by Dupré, (KM #756.x, KM #820.x and KM #823). Coins of this type were called *tsangan`olona* (pronounced "*tsanga-noulou*"), meaning "standing persons," referring to the three standing figures on the reverse. The name "tsangan`olona" is used in the present day for *all* silver coins from the past few hundred years.

During the reign of Madagascar's King Andriamasinavalona (ruled as king 1675-1710) or perhaps a little later during the 18th century, it had become common practice, to cut foreign silver coins into smaller pieces using a chisel, so as to get small change. These pieces were called *vakimbola*, *volafotsy* or *torotorombola*. In French the phrase was *monnaie coupée*, meaning "cut money." The common practice of cutting the coins would later give rise to another name for the "vola frantsa"; it was

vola tsy vaky; meaning "money not cut." With uncut money people could be sure that those whole coins were of high-purity silver (as minted); this was not so obvious with the smaller cut pieces, as they were often counterfeited with iron.

The "monnaie coupée" was used mainly in and around Fort Dauphin, Tamatave and Maroansetra, all being regions close to the eastern coastline. Each division got its own name, and a law was passed during the reign of King Andrianampoinimerina (ruled as king 1787-1810) that fixed the weight and corresponding name of each division:

Fraction of coin:	Name of the division:
1/2	Loso
1/3	Sasangy
1/4	Kirobo
1/5	Iraimbilanja
1/6	Venty
1/7	Lasitelo
1/8	Sikajy
1/10	Lasiroa
1/12	Roavoamena
1/16	Lasiray
1/24	Voamena

Even the *voamena*, the twenty-fourth part of a coin, saw itself divided into further pieces:

1/48 = 1/2 Voamena	Ilavoamena
1/72 = 1/3 Voamena	Eranambatry
1/96 = 1/4 Voamena	Varifitoventy
1/120 = 1/5 Voamena	Varienimbety
1/144 = 1/6 Voamena	Varidimiventy

During the past centuries, a strong Arab influence existed, especially in the northern and coastal regions of Madagascar. That is no doubt the reason why some particular names of these fractional parts are derived from the Arabic language. From the Arabic *nus* comes *Loso* (pronounced "lous"), referring to half of a silver coin; from "rub," there is *Kirobo* (pronounced "kiroub"), referring to a quarter of a silver coin.

The following coins have definitely been found as "monnaie coupée":

- Spanish Colonial type issues and Latin American issues e.g., the 8 Reales.
- Austrian Maria Theresa Thalers.
- French 5 Francs of Napoleon I and III and of the Republic periods.
- Belgian 5 Francs of Leopold III (KM #24 and KM #25).
- Italian 5 Lire of Vittorio Emanuele II (KM #7 and KM #8.x), Sardinia C #124.x.

The *production* of the "monnaie coupée" was in fact done by everybody who was in need of it, for use as small change. The cuts, especially the very small ones, could vary considerably in weight. For that reason it became common practice to weigh the cuts with weights supplied by the government, as opposed to counting them.



Examples of "monnaie coupée"
(Not shown actual size)

We analyzed a group of twenty-three pieces of "monnaie coupée." We could identify all as cut pieces of French 5 Francs of the types issued between 1831 and 1878. The dates of two of them could be seen as 1869 and 1870. Three pieces could be recognized as having been minted in Paris, another two in Strasbourg, and one in Lille.

The masses of the pieces in the group were found to be in the range of 1.43 grams to 6.40 grams. Some pieces were of a mass rather close to that of a fraction of a whole coin, i.e., a quarter, fifth, sixth, etc. of 25.00 grams. One of the better examples of this is a piece that was found to be 3.106 grams as compared to 1/8th of a coin, which would be 3.125 grams. However, the number of pieces found to have a mass near to a fractional "size" (a quarter, fifth, sixth, etc. of a coin) is about the same as the number of those with a mass near the mid-points between two consecutive "sizes." So the

masses seem fairly random—about what you might expect from the accuracy of a chisel.

Between 1830 and 1880, attempts were made by several monarchs to replace the complicated system employing "monnaie coupée," with a decimal currency, based on the French Franc. Several essais/patterns are known; they were ordered, designed and minted. Unfortunately, due to political unrest at the time, no such coins were ever struck for circulation; all plans to do so were eventually abandoned. Little has been published on the patterns of this period, as few survived.



The Pattern Kirobo of 1888

There were further pattern coins in the 1880s. The Krause publication *Unusual World Coins* (4th Edition, 2005) shows a number of types. Dated 1883 there are a 10 Centimes design and another, similar, of 5 Francs. Dated 1888 there is a Kirobo type which includes a royal portrait on the obverse. These three types (in various alloys) are listed as "Fantasy Coinage." The Kirobo pieces were produced by Ralph Heaton & Sons of Birmingham, England; their facilities were later to become The Birmingham Mint. About the coins, in *The Numismatic History of the Birmingham Mint* by James O. Sweeny (1981), it is said:

In 1887, at a time when the French were seeking to control the affairs of the island but the native ruler was still resisting and the British had not yet recognized France's claim, the Oriental Bank Corporation Ltd. of Threadneedle St., London, ordered dies and specimen coins for a proposed new denomination, equivalent to a shilling, for Madagascar. Heatons supplied samples weighing 100 grains troy in two alloys, but the denomination was never adopted for use. The cabinet of THE MINT contains a specimen of this interesting piece.

The book shows both sides of an example of the Kirobo and lists two varieties, differing only in silver fineness, each having mintage of 20 pieces. The obverse of the Kirobo features the portrait of Queen Ranavola III.

In January 1900, French money became the legal tender in Madagascar; this was a few years after the island had become a French Protectorate. The use of "monnaie

coupée" continued until around 1905. By that time sufficient supply of French coins and notes of various denominations had reached Madagascar. The demonetised "monnaie coupée" was exchanged for French currency; almost 5 Tonnes of the money was collected. What remained of the "monnaie coupée" after that time was taken to jewellery shops to be melted down. The jewellers would make bracelets and other jewellery from the silver. This source of silver for jewellers in Madagascar had run totally dry by the late 1970s, according to those families in this business. Certain types of silver-pearls are still called "volafotsy" to this day. Now over one-hundred years since it was last used as money, the "monnaie coupée" has become very scarce and usually can only be found in museums.

After the "French Franc," Madagascar, at different times, used the "Madagascan Franc" and the "CFA Franc" as currency. The continuing use of "Franc" was an obvious reflection of the French power and later continuing influence in the country. Throughout this time, "Ariary" remained a widely used alternative word for an amount of 5 Francs (of whichever variety). This word first appeared on a coin in 1966, on the first post-independence 5 Madagascan Franc coin. During 2003 and 2004 the word "Franc" was phased out of use in the country's economy and monetary system. At the same time the use of the "Ariary" as the main currency unit began. One-fifth of an Ariary, is now referred to only by its old name "IRAIMBILANJA," derived from the words for "one," "iron" and "weight." "IRAIMBILANJA" first appeared on 1 Madagascan Franc coins of 1965, alongside the word "FRANC."

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<http://www.les-nouvelles.com/default.php?file=enquete&mode=detail&id=116>

Historique De La Monnaie Malgache on the website of the Central Bank of Madagascar. On internet at <http://www.banque-centrale.mg/billetmonnaies.asp>.

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St. Joan of Arc

Bob Forrest NI #2382

St. Joan of Arc¹ —St. Jeanne la Pucelle (St. Joan the Maid), as she is in French—was born at Domrémy in 1412. Her story and that of the France into which she had been born are so well known as to merit only a brief summary here. France was in the throes of the Hundred Years War, basically a struggle between the English, allied with the Duchy of Burgundy, and the French.

It was in 1424, at the age of 12, that Joan had the first of her supernatural visitations: an unidentified, disembodied voice² which urged her to be good and to go to church. On the third visitation she realized that the voice was that of the Archangel Michael, and she saw him accompanied by many angels. Later the Archangel Michael was joined by St. Catherine of Alexandria and St. Margaret of Antioch,³ and she could see and hear all three—indeed, she claimed to have actually touched St. Catherine and St. Margaret, and described them as emitting a fragrant smell. It was they, who addressed her as "Jeanne la Pucelle, fille de Dieu" (Joan the Maid, daughter of God).

Gradually, the voices stopped giving her general instructions to lead a virtuous life and began to tell her how she was to save France from the English. She was to raise the siege of Orleans, the voices said, and through her the Dauphin Charles was to become the rightful king of all France. "Daughter of God," she was told, "you must leave this village (Domrémy) and depart into France. You must lead the Dauphin to Rheims where he may be rightfully crowned." At last, in 1428, a specific instruction arrived: "Daughter of God, go to Robert de Baudricourt in the town of Vaucouleurs that he may give you men to take you to the Dauphin."

¹ As usual, *Butler's Lives of the Saints*, ed. D. Attwater & H. Thurston (1956) is a good source, though for the more obscure details relating to the medal in Figure 1, I have used John Beevers, *St. Joan of Arc* (1959; reprinted 1974). For a debate as to whether her name was Jeanne d'Arc or Jeanne Darc (the latter would make the English Joan of Arc a misnomer, of course), see Robert Chambers, *The Book of Days* (1864), vol. 2, p. 77. For the strange debate as to whether Joan was ever really burnt at the stake at all, see Chambers, vol. 1, pp. 702-3 ("documentary evidence of the most authentic character...shew she was alive and happily married, several years after the period alleged to be that of her execution.")

² It was Joan's communications with disembodied voices that led to her adoption as the patron saint of telegraphy! See Clemens Jöckle, *Encyclopedia of Saints* (1997), p. 236.

³ It is interesting to ask why Joan believed she had been visited by these three saints in particular. In the case of St. Michael, it is probably to be explained by the fact that the Dauphin's standards had recently (in 1419) been officially adorned with the figure of St. Michael slaying the serpent at his feet. In the case of St. Catherine and St. Margaret, both of whom were held in great esteem in Joan's day, it is probably because the legends concerning their deep devotion to God, and subsequent martyrdom, were so fantastic ("action packed," as we would now say) that they were just the sort of thing to capture a devout young girl's imagination. The fact that they were young female saints no doubt played its part too! See Beevers' *St Joan of Arc* pp. 25-29. On Joan's 'choice' of saints, see also note 6 below.



Figure 1

The obverse of the beautiful silver medal shown twice actual size in Figure 1, which is probably of 19th century date, depicts this early phase of Joan's career. She is kneeling, surrounded by her three heavenly and disembodied: the Archangel Michael on the left, St. Catherine and St. Margaret on the right. Swords and a military banner float in the background, symbolic of her coming mission.

(Apparently a special standard and a pennon were actually made for Joan. The latter bore the image of the Virgin Mary, with an angel kneeling before her and presenting her with a lily. The banner on the medal may represent this, though all I can make out on it is a letter M, presumably standing for Maria.) The obverse legend of the medal represents the voices of the three saints urging her to go on her mission: FILLE DE DIEU —VA! VA! VA!— DAUGHTER OF GOD, GO, GO, GO!

As we all know, she did go. She did convince the authorities to take her seriously; she did lead the French forces to raise the siege of Orleans, and later to inflict a crushing defeat on the English at Patay. And in July 1429, she did see Charles VII solemnly crowned at Rheims, exactly as prophesied by the Voices.

But then—again, as we all know—something went wrong with the Divine Plan—either that, or God moved in one of his more mysterious ways, interpret it as you will. In 1430 hostilities had resumed and Joan found herself leading French forces to relieve the town of Compiègne, which was holding out against Burgundian forces. She was captured and for several months remained the prisoner of the Duke of Burgundy, during which time neither God nor the ungrateful Charles VII did anything to secure her release. Eventually she was sold to the English, taken to

Rouen, and put on trial for sorcery⁴ and heresy, not to mention the heinous crime of dressing in male attire!⁵ She was found guilty and in due course, on May 30th 1431, was burnt at the stake in the marketplace of Rouen. When the fire was lit, she entreated a nearby Dominican friar to hold up his cross before her, and as the flames mounted, she was heard repeatedly to call out the name of Jesus.

This is the scene on the reverse of the medal in Figure 1. Joan is atop a pyre which is being stoked by a stooping man to the lower right. The Dominican friar holding up his cross is shown on the left. The words in the legend, "JESUS! JESUS! JESUS!," are, of course, Joan's dying words.

Twenty-three years later Joan's family appealed for a re-opening of her case, and as a result the Pope appointed a commission to investigate. Its findings led, in 1456, to the quashing of the trial and its verdict, though it was not to be until 1920 that Joan was canonized (6).⁶



Figure 2

The bronze medal shown 1-1/2 times actual size in Figure 2 is, as its obverse and reverse legends make clear, a souvenir medal of Joan's birthplace, Domrémy. The obverse links up with Figure 1 in so far as it shows Joan being visited by St. Michael (center, St. Catherine (right) and St. Margaret (left).

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⁴ Beevers (pp. 122-3 & p. 149) tells us that the English wanted Joan discredited, not just dead, for if the French victories could be attributed to sorcery, Charles would become a pretender king who owed his power to the Devil. No doubt also they were just plain sore at having been beaten by a slip of a girl!

⁵ A strange charge for us today, but in those days the wearing of male attire by a woman was a form of indecency contrary to ecclesiastical law. That Joan wore it whilst claiming to be under the command of God and his saints was thus blasphemous. See Beevers pp. 135-6, pp. 141-2 & p. 153.

⁶ There is a coda to all this. As I pointed out in my filler on St. Margaret in the January 1999 issue of *NI Bulletin* (pp. 27-8), Joan's "choice" of saints was unfortunate, for in 1969, nearly half a century after her canonization, the Vatican authorities decreed that both St. Margaret and St. Catherine were among a number of saints who had never really existed at all, and who were therefore to be quietly dropped as "pious fictions." But then where does this leave poor old Joan, with two-thirds of her voices discredited? The faithful argue that imaginary or not, it was Joan's devotion to God and to France that really counted, and that for these alone she fully deserves her sainthood.

Identifying India Native States: Tripura

Howard Ford NI #LM90

The coin shown below is a silver Rupee of the India Native State of Tripura, issued by Vira Vikrama Kishore Manikya, with the TE date of 1341. To convert the TE (Tripurabda Era) date to the AD date, add 590, so this coin was minted in 1931. The piece appeared in the KM catalog for 2003, but by the 2005 issue no coins from Tripura were listed. KM indicates (p. 1106) that after about 1750, all coins from this Hindu state were ceremonial. The photo coin shows a good bit of wear, so it did circulate; but it evidently was still more ceremonial than monetary, and KM has deleted it.

Tripura has two very distinct identifying elements on its coinage. The first, as is shown here on the obverse, is a rampant Lion. The Lion is the national emblem. Something your teachers probably taught you in grade school, that there are no tigers in Africa and no lions in India, was incorrect. India did have and still does have Asian Lions, though they are now all in a game preserve in a very small section of the country, the Gir Forest, where park rangers guard the population of about 300, a significant increase from the total of two or three dozen that existed several decades ago (<http://www.nationalgeographic.com/ngm/0106/feature3/>). On nineteenth-century coins of Tripura, the lion does not look very much like a lion; in fact, it probably looks more like a monkey than anything else. Even on this twentieth-century piece, it still is not fully lifelike, although we could probably guess that the animal is meant to be the King of Beasts.



Tripura Rupee
(Approximately 1.5× actual size)

The coins of Tripura may also be distinguished by the reverses with their extensive Hindu inscriptions. The reverses name the ruler and almost always his wife also. Tripura was the only country in the world where the King had the name of his Queen frequently placed on the coin along with his own. The ruler's name always includes the word *manikya*, which means "jewel," and which was given to the rulers of the state long ago in reward for their service. I find the Tripura coins very interesting, but they are a bit scarce and therefore not as inexpensive as we might like.

Tripura was a hill country. In earlier centuries the terrain protected it somewhat from the power of the Muslim states on the plains below, and it was able to survive. The worship of Shiva (Siva) was strong in this kingdom, and Shiva was a very bloody deity, with human sacrifice involved in the rites of worship. The British eventually came and in 1760-61 annexed the area to the East India Company, which completely took over control of the *diwani*, the important financial affairs of the government of Tripura (http://www.1911encyclopedia.org/Hill_Tipperah). As of 1871 the British became even more involved in the affairs of Tripura, which has frequently been called Hill Tipperah since then (*Ibid.* Also see <http://northtripura.nic.in/history.htm>). It was able to exist into the twentieth century, and attained statehood in 1972. Although it is the second smallest state in modern India, and is now almost surrounded by Bangladesh, it is still a viable state (<http://tripura.nic.in/kt3.htm>).



FYI:
Romanov Rulers of Russia from 1613 to World War I
with their Family Relationships to Preceding Rulers
Howard Ford NI #LM90

Michael Feodorovich, 1613-45, son of the Patriarch Feodor
 Alexei, 1645-76, son of Michael
 Feodor III, 1676-82, son of Alexei
 Ivan V and Peter I, ruling jointly, 1682-96, sons of Alexei
 Peter I (the Great), 1696-1721, half brother of Ivan V
 Catherine, 1725-27, wife of Peter I
 Peter II, 1727-30, grandson of Peter I
 Anna, 1730-40, niece of Peter I, 1730-40
 Ivan VI, 1740-41, great-grandson of Ivan V
 Elisabeth, 1741-62, daughter of Peter the Great
 Peter III, 1762, nephew of Elisabeth
 Catherine II (the Great), 1762-96, wife of Peter III
 Paul I, 1796-1801, son of Catherine II
 Alexander I, 1801-1825, son of Paul I
 Nicholas I, 1825-55, brother of Alexander I
 Alexander II, 1855-81, son of Nicholas I
 Alexander III, 1881-94, son of Alexander II
 Nicholas II, 1894-1917, son of Alexander III
 Michael II, 1917 (Tsar for one day), brother of Nicholas II

Michael Feodorovich is considered the first Romanov Tsar; however, his father, the Patriarch, was in effect a co-ruler at the beginning of Michael's reign.

NI

Kan'ei Tsuho and Tempo Tsuho

Mari Ohnuki, Institute for Monetary and Economic Studies, Bank of Japan



Kan'ei Tsuho
Copper, one mon
(1636)

Diameter: approx. 24 mm
Weight: approx. 3.75 g



Kan'ei Tsuho
Copper, one mon
(1668)

Diameter: approx. 24 mm
Weight: approx. 3.6 g



Kan'ei Tsuho
Brass, four mon
(1768)

Diameter: approx. 27 mm
Weight: approx. 4.9 g

This coin was called
bunsen, because of the
Japanese character bun on
its reverse side.

A simpler coin with fewer
waves on the reverse side
was minted from 1769.

Kan'ei Tsuho

The coins illustrated above were minted throughout the country for 300 years—from the beginning of the Edo Period until the start of the Meiji Period—as the official coin of the Tokugawa Shogunate.

Tempo Tsuho

The coin illustrated below was minted in the later years of the Edo Period with a face value of 100 *mon*. Illicit minting of the coin occurred throughout the country of Japan due to the significant difference between face value and material value, as the coin was worth only five pieces of one-mon copper coins.

Chinese coins that flowed into Japan in large quantities played an important role in economic development in terms of payment settlement, because they were used in Japan as a domestic currency. From the latter half of the 15th century, numerous types of coins began to circulate in Japan, as concerns over the deteriorating quality of the imported Chinese coins (due to chips and cracks) led to an inflow of copper coins from Korea, the Ryukyus, and Annan as well as privately minted coins. As a

result, establishing a unified currency system was not an easy task. It took the Tokugawa Shogunate thirty-five years after it began minting gold and silver coins to replace imported and privately minted coins with the *Kan'ei Tsuho*.

Aiming to eliminate the practice of *erizeni* (selection of coins), the shogunate set an exchange ratio of 1:4 between the *eirakusen* (a standard copper coin—*Ed.*) and *bitasen* (inferior quality coin—*Ed.*), which played an important role as a base calculation coin. Coins other than the *eirakusen* were circulated at one-fourth the *eirakusen*'s value. Despite these measures, the practice of *erizeni* did not cease. Consequently, in 1608 the shogunate banned the use of the *eirakusen* as a base currency, standardized the exchange value of all coins based on that of the *bitasen*, and enforced the official exchange ratio of the Edo Period coinage system of one gold *ryo* to 50 silver *momme* to four base-metal *kammon*. However, the practice of *erizeni* continued.

In 1636, the shogunate minted and issued the *Kan'ei Tsuho* and at the same time tried to collect all old imported and privately minted coins. Owing to the increasing number of *zeniza* (copper mints), the *Kan'ei Tsuho* was minted in large quantities, circulating throughout the nation during the Kambun Era (1661-73). In 1670, the use of coins other than the *Kan'ei Tsuho* was prohibited. The old coins collected in exchange for the *Kan'ei Tsuho* are believed to have been exported to neighboring East Asian countries.

The size and shape of the *Kan'ei Tsuho* varied, since the coins were minted by local merchants under contract. Moreover, after the start of the 18th century, the one-mon and four-mon copper coins were minted using steel and brass due to the shortage of copper. In 1835, as the Tokugawa Shogunate drew to a close, a large copper coin called the *Tempo Tsuho*—with a face value of 100 mon—was also minted.



**Tempo Tsuho, 100 mon
(1835)**

Approximately 49 mm × 32 mm
Weight: approximately 20.6 g

All images courtesy of Currency Museum, Institute for Monetary and Economic Studies, Bank of Japan.

A Renaissance Medal of Philip I of Castile
Herman Blanton NI #LM115



Philip I the Handsome, [1504-6]
Silver, 55 mm, 58.05 g

Obv. "PHILIPVS D G REX CASTELIE EC3 ARCHI DVX AVS ECT ♣." Nearly full front bust to left, wearing hat and the collar of the Order of the Golden Fleece.

Rev. "VIRTVTE • ET • CONSTANCIA." Fortuna holding sail and riding globe upon the sea.

This undated, original cast silver medal of Philip I of Spain was offered in UBS sale 67 (lot number 5027) in September 2006. (UBS image is 50 mm, Habich lists as 55 mm.)

Philip was the first born (1478) of Maximilian of Austria and Mary of Burgundy. Upon the death of his mother in 1482, when Philip was but four years old, he inherited the title of Duke of Burgundy, albeit under the trusteeship of his father until Philip reached the age of 16. In 1496 Maximilian arranged for the marriage between Philip and Joanna, the daughter of Ferdinand and Isabella of Spain. There was no intention on the part of Ferdinand and Isabella to convey the thrones of either Castile or Aragon to the house of Austria, for Joanna was third in line of succession. However, through a series of familial misfortunes for the Catholic Monarchs, this is precisely what happened. When Isabella died in 1504, the Castilian crown went to Joanna, as the governors would not pass the crown of Castile to Ferdinand, since he was not Castilian. As the husband of Queen Joanna, Philip is considered King of Castile by his heirs, the first Habsburg king of Spain. Philip died in 1506, leaving Joanna to a secluded life. Much is written about "Joanna the Mad," for those interested in reading it. Philip's greatest claim to fame is as the father of Charles V.



Philip I the Handsome, circa 1500

The medal art form developed in Germany in the early 16th century. The cities of Nuremburg and Augsburg produced fine medalists who carried the Italian Renaissance medallic art form into Germany. This piece is classified as originating from Augsburg. The leading medalist in Augsburg was Hans Schwarz, who produced three exquisite medals before the Emperor Maximilian called the Diet of Augsburg in 1518. The Schwarz medals must have caught the interest of the delegates, which led to a great expansion of medal production by Schwarz and other medalists.

The artist of the subject medal here is uncertain but is identified in the literature as "Master of the Forster Couple" because the same medalist created a medal of the married couple Sixtus and Felicitus

Forster. Georg Habich argues that Joachim Forster is the "Master of the Married Couple" and that the "married couple" were his parents. Joachim was born around 1500 and died in 1579. He was one of thirteen children, the most famous of whom is John Forster, who was active in the Protestant Reformation.

This Philip I medal was therefore logically produced no earlier than 1518 and likely within a few years afterwards, as there was a terrific expansion of medal production during and immediately after the Diet.

My thanks to Lutz Neumann-Lysloff for his generous assistance.

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NI

The Coins of the *Deutsche Demokratische Republik*
Bill Mullan NI #1040

The Trade Coins of the GDR

Type One Coins

In 1948 the GDR issued three minor aluminum coins, a One Pfennig, a Five Pfennig, and a Ten Pfennig, all with the same design. Figure 1 shows the three denominations while at the same time illustrating all three types of minor coins. Type 1 is on the left.

At the top of the obverse of Type 1 coins is the inscription "*DEUTSCHLAND*." Under the inscription the denomination is expressed in large numerals. The word "*PFENNIG*" is spelled out in letters the tops of which follow a horizontal line and the bottoms of which follow the curve of the coin. Two four-pointed stars appear in the field to the left and right of the numerals. The mint mark is centered under "*PFENNIG*."

The reverse bears a device composed of a stalk of wheat with prominent awns superimposed on a geared wheel. The date is below and centered upon the device.



Figure 1

Denomination	Cat. #	Dates	Mints	Mintage	Price Range -Unc.
One Pfennig	KM #1	1948-50	A, E	298,200,000	\$35.00 to \$300.00
Five Pfennig	KM #2	1948-50	A, E	205,172,000	\$35.00 to \$50.00
Ten Pfennig	KM #3	1948-50	A, E	232,537,000	\$75.00 to \$1,000.00
Fifty Pfennig	KM #4	1949-50	A	67,703,000	\$32.50 (for 1950)

Table 1 - Type 1

Table 1 lists Type 1 coins, giving the KM numbers, the total mintage for both years and mints, and the range of catalog value for each in uncirculated condition from Krause Publications 2007 edition of *Standard Catalog of World Coins*. Coins bear an "A" mint mark for those struck at the Berlin mint or an "E" for those of the Muldenhutten mint, located near Dresden in the east of Germany.

Fifty Pfennig – KM #4

The Berlin Mint struck an aluminum-bronze Fifty Pfennig coin in 1949 and 1950 (see Figure 2). The coin's reverse differs from that of the three smaller coins in that the denomination and date are joined by the word "DEUTSCHLAND" around the top edge. The obverse is a complete departure, however, for the coat of arms is replaced by an industrial scene of a factory with a plow in the foreground. The 1949 coin is rare.

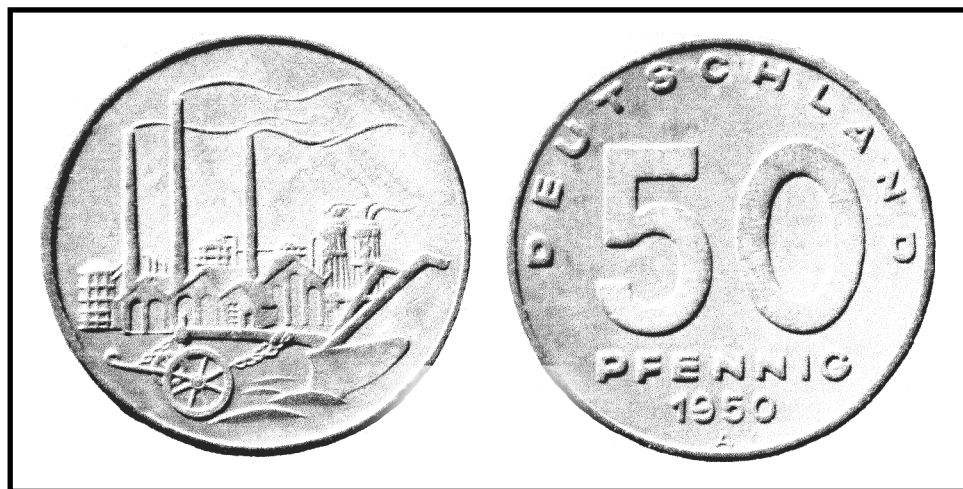


Figure 2 (Actual size 22 mm)

In 1948 the GDR also circulated paper money in the form of Rentenmark and Reichsbank notes with control stamps glued to their faces (Pick numbers 1 through 7). When the Western Allies issued paper money for their portion of Germany, namely, Pick #5 through #8, the Russians also issued paper notes for the GDR, Pick #9 through #16.

Type 2 Coins

The GDR issued no coins in 1951, perhaps because the mint was preparing to release coins with a new reverse in 1952 and 1953. The wheat and geared wheel of the earlier

coins were replaced by a new device consisting of two stalks of wheat bracketing a heavy hammer surmounted by a pair of calipers. The obverse was unchanged. Table 2 gives pertinent information about these coins. The Type 2 Five Pfennig is depicted in the middle of Figure 1.

Denomination	Cat. #	Dates	Mints	Mintage	Price Range - Unc.
One Pfennig	KM #5	1952-53	A, E	511,387,000	\$6.00 to \$60.00
Five Pfennig	KM #6	1952-53	A, E	207,080,000	\$12.50 to \$90.00
Ten Pfennig	KM #7	1952-53	A, E	122,036,000	\$55.00 to \$650.00

Table 2 - Type 2

After striking these coins the GDR ceased production of small-denomination coins until the introduction of type three coins as described below.

The FDR, after its massive issue of coins in the 1948-1950 time frame, did not strike any more minor coins, One through Ten Pfennig, until 1966, with the exception of the Two Pfennig, of which production began in 1958. The One Mark coin began in 1950, but was not struck again until 1954. Production of the Two Mark and Five Mark coins began in 1951 but was then suspended until 1957.

Type 3 Coins

Type 3 coins started with a One Mark in 1956. They were the first coins of the nation to bear its full name and a new coat of arms reminiscent of the motif on Russian coins. The obverse bore the coat of arms consisting of two curved sheaves of wheat banded by a ribbon that is folded on itself at the bottom center. A heavy hammer and pair of calipers similar to those of Type 2 coins occupy the center while along the outer edge of the coin is the inscription "*DEUTSCHE DEMOKRATISCHE REPUBLIC.*"

The reverse of the One Pfennig and Five Pfennig coins features the denomination in large numerals with an oak leaf at either side and "PFENNIG" with the date at the bottom and an "A" for the Berlin mint at the top. The Ten Pfennig is similar but the mint mark with a single oak leaf is at the top. The Mark was followed by a Two Mark in 1957, similar to the One Pfennig and Five Pfennig coins. The Ten Pfennig Type 3 is depicted at the right in Figure 1.

Denomination	Catalog #	Dates	Mintage	Price Range - Unc.
One Pfennig	KM #8. 1	1960-75	1,550,748,000	\$2.50 to \$35.00
One Pfennig	KM #8.2	1977-90	1,526,991,000	\$0.50 to \$2.00
Five Pfennig	KM #9.1	1968-75	418,475,000	\$2 to \$3.50
Five Pfennig	KM #9 2	1978-90	372,586,000	\$0.60 to \$30.00
Ten Pfennig	KM #10.1	1963-73	477,436,000	\$0.75 to \$85.00
Ten Pfennig	KM #10.2	1978-90	287,345,000	\$0.60 to \$25.00
Twenty Pfennig	KM #11	1969-90	288,907,000	\$2 to \$20

Table 3 - Type 3

All of the above coins were struck at the Berlin Mint. In 1969 a brass coin of Twenty Pfennig (Figure 3) was added to the series. While the obverse of the twenty is similar to the other Type 3 coins, the reverse is different in that there are no oak leaves and for the first two years of issue it bore no mint mark.



Figure 3 (Actual size 22 mm)

The Ten Pfennig Question

Prior to the 12th edition of the *Standard Catalog* released in 1986 the coins of the DDR were identified by "Y" numbers assigned by R.S. Yeoman in the *Current Coins of the World*. In the 1987 issue Krause-Mishler assigned KM numbers to all East German coins. Table 4 shows the small revisions of KM numbers since that time. Only coins affected by the changes are listed.

Denomination	Date	Yeoman		Krause-Mishler		
		1986	1987	1994	1995	2004
One Pfennig	1977	8	8.1	8.2	8.2	8.2
Five Pfennig*	1976					9.2
Ten Pfennig	1963-73	10	10.1	10.1	10	10
Ten Pfennig	1978-90	10a	10.2	10.2	10	10
Fifty Pfennig	1958	11	12	12	12.1	12.1
Fifty Pfennig	1968-90	11	12	12	12.2	12.2
One Mark	1972	67	35	35	35.1	35.1
One Mark	1973-90	67	35	35	35.2	35.2
Two Mark**	1972					48

* 2 pcs known, ** 3 pcs known

Table 4

Perhaps the editors of the catalog felt the difference between KM #10.1 and KM #10.2 did not support different catalog numbers, but there is enough difference for the coins to have entered the KM catalog as two different varieties and continue as such until 1994. I believe that the former numbering should be restored. To bolster my belief see Figure 4. Greatly enlarged details of KM #10.1 and KM #10.2 show how

the "D" of "DEUTSCHE," the "R" of "REPUBLIK," and the star that separates them in the lower left portion of the coin are aligned differently in respect to the portion of ribbon adjacent to them. The difference between the two versions of the One Pfennig and Five Pfennig coins is obvious.

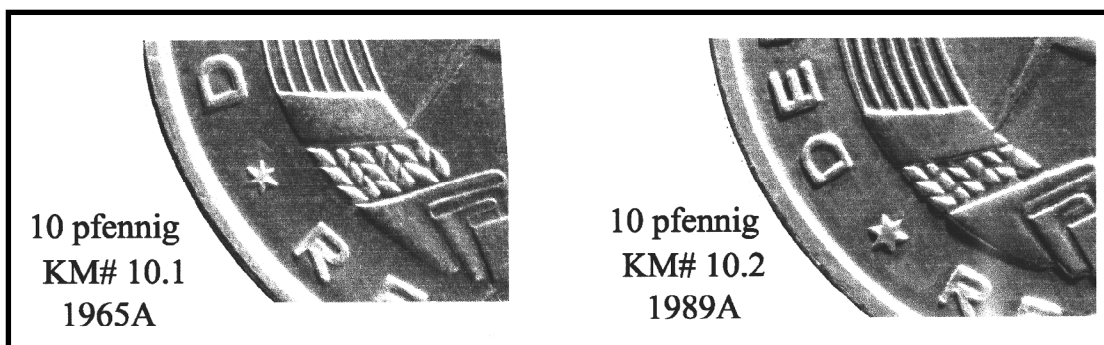


Figure 4

Denomination	Catalog	Dates	Mintage	Price Range - Unc.
Fifty Pfennig	KM #12.1	1958	101,606,000	\$10.00
Fifty Pfennig	KM #12.2	1968-90	71,590,000	\$2.50 to \$30.00
One Mark	KM #13	1956-63	189,983,000	\$9.00 to \$12.00
Two Mark	KM #14	1957	77,961,000	\$10.00
One Mark	KM #35.1	1972	30,288,000	\$5.00
One Mark	KM #35.2	1973-90	240,676,000	\$2.00 to \$65.00
Two Mark	KM #48	1974-90	162,214,000	\$2.00 to \$30.00

Table 5 – Type 3 (Fifty Pfennig, One & Two Mark)

The listing of the rare Five Pfennig and Two Mark in Table 4 coins is in keeping with what has been done in other parts of the catalog. If somebody is being that thorough about the listing of the coins of East Germany, I do not know how what I am about to say in regard to the Fifty Pfennig coin could be true.

Fifty Pfennig KM #12

Another numbering problem involves the Fifty Pfennig coin that started out as Y #11. In the 1987 issue of the *Standard Catalog*, the transition was made to KM #12 and all the Fifty Pfennig coins were all so listed. The single number listing continued through the 1994 catalog. Then in the 1995 issue the first year of the coin (1958) was numbered KM #12.1 and all subsequent coins were called KM #12.2. The explanation given is that KM #12.1 has a smaller coat of arms than KM #12.2. I can detect no difference between the two. Figure 5 shows the two side by side. I generally use a standard lighting set-up for all my photos and in this case the resulting pictures were so alike that I was afraid someone would think that I just cloned a second copy of a single picture to prove my point. So at least I went to the trouble of rotating the 1982 coin 90 degrees to show it was not the same shot. I argue that there is no distinction.



Figure 5 (Actual size 23 mm)

One and Two Mark

One Mark, KM #13 (dated 1956-63), and Two Mark, KM #14 (dated 1957), have the denomination spelled out as "DEUTSCHE MARK." On later coins of those denominations, the One Mark, KM #35 (dated 1972 et. al), and the Two Mark, KM #48 (dated 1974 et. al.), the denomination is given as "MARK." Something happened to cause this change but I have not been able to determine what it was. The paper money reflected the same change. Pick notes 17 through 21 dated 1955 were denominated in Deutsche Marks. All of the notes of the FDR were also Deutsche Marks. The next issue of paper money by East Germany in 1964 was from the Deutsche Notenbank (Pick 22 through 26), and they were denominated in Marks rather than Deutsche Marks. The changed denomination shows up on the reverse of the coins as indicated in Figure 6.



Figure 6 (Actual size 25 mm)

Figure 6 also illustrates the difference in size of the figure for one, which is given as the factor that distinguishes the One Mark KM #35.1 from the KM #35.2. On KM #13 the one measures 13.5 mm while on KM #35.2 it measures 14.2 mm. All I have is a ruler marked off in one millimeter segments so the measurement in tenths of a millimeter is an estimate. I have assumed that one on the reverse of KM #35.1 is the same size as the one on the reverse of One Mark KM #13. Since I do not have the 1972 One Mark KM #35.1, I cannot be certain; but in any case the difference is less than a millimeter. It is small enough that the 1972 One Mark did not get its separate KM number until someone spotted it in time for it to be included in the 1994 book. The obverses of KM #13 and KM #35 are readily distinguishable.

Five Mark KM #29

In 1971 the Berlin mint struck a Five Mark in copper-nickel depicting the Brandenburg Gate. Since the coin shared the same reverse as the commemorative coins of the time, and no more issued for many years, I thought at first that it was a commemorative. It may very well have been so intended. Indeed, the 1980 *Catalog of World Coins* carried it as the Berlin Commemorative.

In 1971 for the first time there were commemorative coins minted in the millions. KM #33, a copper-nickel Twenty Mark celebrating the 100th anniversary of the birth of Heinrich Mann, and KM #34, a copper-nickel Twenty Mark celebrating the 85th anniversary of the birth of Ernst Thälmann, were minted in 1971. They were the first Twenty Mark coins not to be made of silver. The following year a Five Mark honoring the City of Meissen, KM #37, had a mintage of 3,500,000. So the Brandenburg Gate fits right in with the pattern that began that year. Whether this conjecture is correct or not, KM #29 was destined to have a full life: it was included in all but two of the annual eight-coin mint sets; and in the two years when it was not included it was minted in such a low numbers as to rank it among the most expensive of GDR coins.

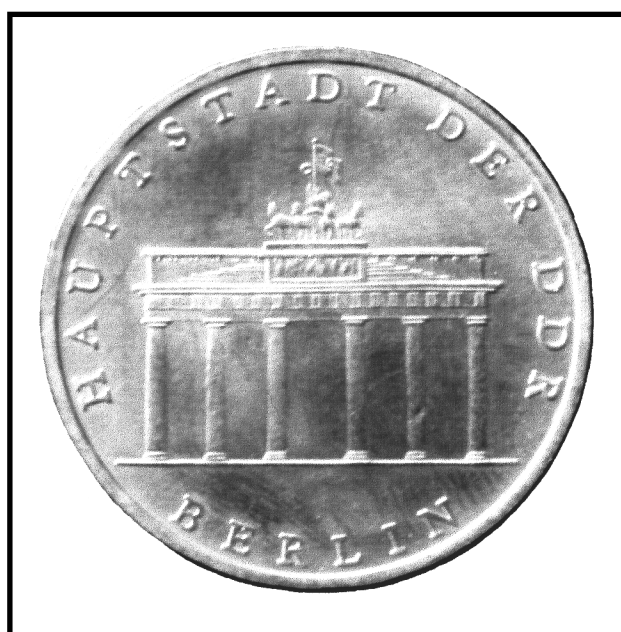


Figure 7 (Actual size 27 mm)

The coat of arms is centered on the reverse with the numeral "5" at the bottom flanked by the date and "MARK." The legend "DEUTSCHE DEMOKRATISCHE REPUBLIC" forms a three-quarter circle around the coat of arms. The mint mark is centered between the coat of arms and the legend. The obverse pictures the Brandenburg Gate, with "BERLIN" beneath it. The legend "HAUPTSTADT DER DDR" forms a three-quarter circle about the gate.

Denomination	Dates	Mintage	Price Range - Unc.
Five Mark	1971-90	4,500,000	\$10.00 to \$1,100.00

Table 6 – Five Mark, KM #29

The catalog value of KM #29 varies from \$10.00 for the initial issue in 1971 (mintage 4,000,000) to \$1,100 for the years 1983 and 1985, when mint sets did not include KM #29, each of which had a mintage of only 3,000 pieces.

Mint Sets

It is interesting to look at the catalog prices for mint sets. In Table 7 I have listed the prices of the seven-coin mint set in the first column, the catalog price of the seven individual coins in the next column. The bargain you get depends pretty much on the year. In the third column the price of the Five Mark coin is listed and the total of columns 2 and 3 is in column 4. Column 5 shows the price of the eight-coin mint sets that contain the 8 coins of columns 3 and 4.

Year	Prices				
	7 pc Mint Set	7 individual coins	5 Mark	8 coin total	8 coin Mint Set
1979		\$31.70	\$35.00	\$66.70	\$50.00
1980		\$29.70	\$32.00	\$61.70	\$75.00
1981		\$26.70	\$30.00	\$56.70	\$55.00
1982	\$90.00	\$39.50	\$26.50	\$66.00	\$80.00
1983	\$140.00	\$24.70	\$9.00*	\$33.70	\$200.00
1984	\$110	\$184.50	\$95.00	\$278.50	\$135.00
1985	\$55.00	\$60.50	\$40.00**	\$100.50	\$60.00
1986	\$65.00	\$61.50	\$125.00	\$186.50	\$110.00
1987	\$60.00	\$56.50	\$20.00	\$76.50	\$50.00
1988	\$60.00	\$39.80	\$40.00	\$79.80	\$60.00
1989	\$60.00	\$22.70	\$40.00	\$62.70	\$55.00
1990	\$100.00	\$87.60	\$50.00	\$137.80	\$135.00

* 5 Mark is KM #37, ** 5 Mark is KM #102, all other 5 Mark are KM #29

Table 7 – Mint Sets

Some crazy things show up. For the years 1982, 1986 and 1990 you can get the eight-coin set for less than the seven-coin set. This is possible if you grant that the mint sets are collectibles in their own right. Since 1982 was the first year of issue of the seven-coin set and it had a smaller production than the eight-coin set (4,500 vs. 21,000), it

might very well command a higher price. In 1983 the pre-issue hoopla about the sets probably emphasized the fact that the set would contain a commemorative coin instead of the usual Five Mark. The Five Mark in the set, KM #37, commemorating the city of Meissen, (mintage 3,500,000), does not justify the exalted catalog price.

Then in 1984 you could get a real bargain. Was that a reaction of the market to the 1983 situation? Although 1985 brought back the commemorative coin ploy, this time the people did not bite.

Catalog Values over the Years

To conclude this presentation I offer a graph that tracks the cost of a type set of the trade coins of the GDR through 25 issues of the *Standard Catalog of World* coins. For this purpose I have added up the catalog value of the least expensive of each type coin. The coins I have used and their values for the years of most change are listed in Table 8. Notice that I still use two varieties of KM #10.

	KM	Date	1985	1992	1993	1996	1998	1999	2001
1 Pf	1	1948A	5.00	3.00	17.50	17.50	17.50	35.00	35.00
1 Pf	5	1952A	2.00	2.00	8.50	10.00	5.00	6.00	6.00
1 Pf	8.1	1975A	0.50	0.50	0.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50
1 Pf	8.2	1978A	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50
5 Pf	2	1950A	3.00	3.00	18.50	20.00	20.00	35.00	35.00
5 Pf	6	1952A	1.00	1.00	8.50	12.00	12.00	12.50	12.50
5 Pf	9.1	1968A	0.75	0.75	0.75	1.00	1.00	2.00	2.00
5 Pf	9.2	1978A	0.75	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.60
10 Pf	3	1950A	7.50	3.00	12.50	16.50	16.50	70.00	70.00
10 Pf	7	1952A	1.00	1.50	8.50	12.50	12.50	55.00	55.00
10 Pf	10.1	1968A	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75	0.75
10 Pf	10.2	1979A	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.60
20 Pf	11	1989A	0.75	0.75	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
50 Pf	12.1	1958A	1.00	1.00	6.50	10.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
50 Pf	12.2	1971A	1.00	1.00	2.50	2.50	2.50	2.50	3.00
1 Mk	13	1956A	2.50	2.50	6.50	9.00	9.00	9.00	9.00
1 Mk	35.1	1972A	2.50	2.50	4.00	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
1 Mk	35.2	1977A	1.25	1.25	1.25	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
2 Mk	14	1957A	3.00	2.00	4.00	12.00	10.00	10.00	10.00
2 Mk	48	1982A	2.00	1.50	1.50	2.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
5 Mk	29	1971A	3.50	3.00	3.00	6.00	6.00	6.00	10.00
Total			40.75	32.50	108.75	144.75	137.75	268.75	273.45

Table 8 – Type Set – Trade Coins

For the table I generally picked the coins which were least expensive in the list for that issue of the catalog. It was in 1978 that the last coins needed for a type set were minted, but it was not until 1983 that catalog prices for all the types were published.

The totals from Table 8 cover the years when the greatest changes took place. Chart 1, on the other hand, follows the shift in catalog values in every issue of the *Standard Catalog of World Coins* from 1983 through the current 2007 issue.

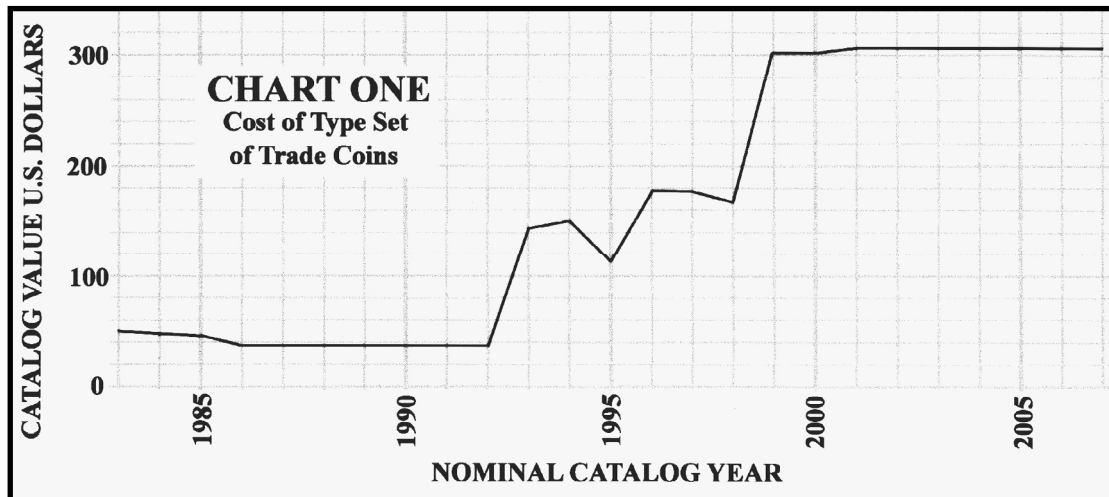


Chart 1 - Nominal Catalog Year

There are two flat-line periods where values changed very little for coins listed in the catalogs: 1986-1992 and 2001-2007. During the former period there were many changes too small to show at the scale of Chart 1. After the pot-boiling activity between 1992 and 1999 it seems odd that there would not have been more changes in values between 2001 and 2007, but all coin values remained constant during that period.

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